DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 121 173 HE 007 594

TITLE	The Quality Revolution: Learner Centered Reform in Higher Education.
INSTITUTION	Charlotte Area Educational Consortium, N.C.
PUB DATE	Apr 75
NOTE	143p.; Papers presented at a conference on Learner Centered Reform in Higher Education (Belmont, North Carolina, April 1975)
EDRS PRICE	MF-$0.83 HC-$7.35 Plus Postage
DESCRIPTORS	Change Strategies; Curriculum Development; Developmental Programs; *Educational Change; *Educational Objectives; Effective Teaching; *Higher Education; Post Secondary Education; *Student Ability; *Student Needs

ABSTRACT

This conference explores the implication of quality and person-centered revolutions in higher education. Specific objectives are to: (1) identify who the new learners are and how to diagnose their abilities and needs; (2) hear distinguished educators discuss possible nontraditional institutional responses to new learners; (3) examine a variety of approaches that faculty can take to develop programs for new learners; (4) critically analyze alternative ways to improve institutions in postsecondary education; (5) examine multiple ways for measuring teaching effectiveness; (6) formulate a strategy for developing or improving programs for new learners; and (7) develop an informal network of persons working on alternative institutional responses for new learners. (Author/KE)

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THE QUALITY REVOLUTION: LEARNER CENTERED REFORM IN HIGHER EDUCATION

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The Institute for Undergraduate Curriculum Reform

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Central Piedmont Community College
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Johnson C. Smith University
Queens College
Sacred Heart College
University of North Carolina — Charlotte
Wingate College
Winthrop College

held at

The Conference Center

Sacred Heart College

Belmont, North Carolina 28012

April 21-22, 1975

HE 007 594

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Introduction

On October 22, 1974, the Chief Academic Officers and selected representatives of the Charlotte Area Educational Consortium met on the campus of Sacred Heart College (1) to review the history of CAEC, (2) to critically analyze the goals and purposes of CAEC, (3) to examine the structure of CAEC, and (4) to provide some direction for activities and projects as they relate to academic affairs. Many substantive ideas grew out of that meeting including (1) the need for exchange of more detailed information about CAEC institutions, (2) the desire to have persons with similar administrative responsibilities and academic backgrounds meet to discuss similar interests and problems, and (3) a plea for assistance and direction in wrestling with problems of academic leadership.

In response to this latter need, a conference was built around the theme "The Quality Revolution: Learner Centered Reform in Higher Education." The rationale and objectives were as follows:

Francis Keppel, former United States Assistant Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare, talks about The Necessary Revolution in American Education. He states,

> The first revolution in American education was a revolution in quantity. Everyone was to be provided the chance for an education of some sort. That revolution is almost won in the schools, and is on its way in higher education. The second revolution is equality of opportunity. That revolution is under way. The next turn of the wheel must be a revolution in quality. (p. 1)[1]

John D. Rockefeller III, Chairman of the Commission on Population Growth, calls for a revolution in a slightly different way. Rockefeller's premise is that The Second American Revolution has already begun and that we must react immediately or risk destruction.[2] Rockefeller claims the "Youth Movement" seeks to establish a person-centered society to promote humanity and idealism in all Americans. In his synthesis - termed the "humanistic revolution" - Rockefeller offers prescriptions to create new structures and restructuring existing institutions to plan and effectuate humanistic goals. The goal of the conference is to explore the implication of quality and person centered revolutions for higher education.

The specific objectives of the conference are:

1. To identify who the new learners are and how to diagnose their abilities and needs.

2. To hear distinguished educators discuss possible non-traditional institutional responses to new learners.

3. To examine a variety of approaches that faculty can take to develop programs for new learners.

4. To critically analyze alternative ways to improve instruction in post-secondary education.

5. To examine multiple ways for assessing teaching effectiveness.

6. To formulate a strategy for developing or improving programs for new learners.

7. To develop an informal network of persons working on alternative institutional responses for new learners.

The conference was held at The Conference Center at Sacred Heart College on April 21-22, 1978. This document is a compilation of presentations made at the conference.

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Sacred Heart College

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1 New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1968.

2 New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1975.

[illegible]

[illegible]

of learning with which I would infuse all learning environs, attempts to make the student more aware of what it means to be a scientist-artist-scholar human being. It provides rich and diverse opportunities for the learning of specialized knowledge and skills, but not at the expense of learning the skills of being a human being, i.e., humanizing humans. The general change agent for this situation is a specialist who can see ways of relating his knowledge, skills, and experience as a whole human being to the skills, knowledge and experience of other human beings from different disciplines or avenues of thought and ways of living. Out of this resource pool come new formulations and a continuous redefining of old ones resulting in the propagation of ferment and growth. If the specialists gathered are insufficiently grounded in this kind of enterprise, then they are only capable of operating within fixed and narrow boundaries from which there emerges a tight-knit discipline system that gradually erodes the system as a whole.

You might ask why I cite this development or belabor this point so long. There are a number of reasons. First of all, situations structured about a resource pool concept might insure, should insure, the greatest potential for conceptual reformulation and program diversity in higher education. This is self-evident because of its holistic and dynamic features. But, it might also provide a better setting for liberal learning. How often we confess our goal as "truth-telling" and identify ourselves as "seekers of truth" on a pilgrimage in the name of the truth of meaning, i.e., the meaning that grows out of our knowledge and understanding of human relationships, human problems, and human destiny--the truth-telling of persons that forms the basis

of a common humanity and reinforces the vital self-renewing process necessary for survival of any society. What more noble a goal and what more propitious a moment considering the problems the world in its chaotic semblance belches up and spews out. Fresh in our memories are the pronouncements, only a few years ago of economists predicting marvelous advances in our GNP. Somehow, someone neglected to take into consideration energy and food shortages that have carried everyone headlong into an extended period of double-digit inflation and serious recession that might peak or bottom out sometime later. The heads of some of us are still spinning as a result in the late forties of the introduction of nuclear energy, jet propulsion and transistors. And who would have guessed in the forties that less than 30 years later Uncle Sam would be bartering nuclear power plants and wholesaling armaments in the name of peace?

Our memories aren't that short to have forgotten the incident of ten million refugees pouring across India's border from East Pakistan. They carried few belongings. They needed shelter and food for an undetermined period of time. This unrestrained rush of humanity into an economically shaky India produced great turmoil within India.

India's response was an appeal to the free world for the sum of $480 million to feed, to clothe, and to provide temporary housing. Indira Ghandi traveled to visit several of the world's heads of state with a plea, not for her own people, but for displaced persons. The response was less than one tenth of the funds needed. India moved into East Pakistan and helped create Bangladesh.

India, the largest democracy in the world, had appealed to like governments on the principle that all human life is precious and that a focal point of democratic concern is endemic human need. In such a country at such a time great human suffering the likes of which had not been known for decades was being experienced, and windows were open for all the world to view this mass trauma. The appeal was for compassion--that compassion in which humanity reaches its pinnacle of genius, i.e., when compassion means caring a great deal for people whom we will never see and who will never see us.

Somehow the genius of humanity was thwarted and people within the greater society aligned themselves again in all sorts of peculiar, confusing, and disappointment arrangements to ends very complex, not clearly rational, and certainly not compassionate.

Nor can we ignore the characterization of Americans of the 1990's as urban-centric and mobi-centric, i.e., we will live in denser population bands and move about frequently from location to location within the population mass. This being the case, and for the sake of maintaining our sanity, we will be obliged to learn how to develop intense and deep human relationships quickly, to learn how to enter a group and leave a group feeling not as an interchangeable part but as a unique and genuine entity, and to learn how to share roles that build satisfying experiences which provide sustenance and enrichment. For such persons, persons who move every four years to different and possibly distant locales, a sense of permanency must develop in something other than the land, or a place, or even a country. The center of stability may have to be

in a conviction, in a commitment, in a set of ideas. We may have to become more value conscious and from within that framework struggle to find new modes of adaptability. Existence may have to be defined more in terms of experience than data, less objective and more open to confrontation and feelings. We might have to become more tolerant of uncertainty without losing our posture of intellectual mastery, or without fear of losing identify, or without fear of the adaptation process itself which could make us agents of change, as well as subjects for self-discovery. Maybe this comes about when we take time for people and as human beings come to realize that what we become is determined by interrelationships, i.e., actions toward people, away from people, or against people--observing ourselves as participants in social evolution, as resource persons tolerant of relevant irrationality and irrelevant rationality.

It becomes obvious, does it not, that a coherent focus is needed for society a definition of learning which embraces the search for good judgment and wisdom (reflective minds) in contrast to splintered knowledge spun on the looms of master scholar-craftsmen who weave pieces of knowledge in places often dirtant and insulated from each other. The apparel produced presents too frequently patterns of mosaics incomprehensible to reflective minds, the bits and pieces clouding perspective. As Thomas Green has stated so pointedly:

> In the future, the informing vision of what liberal learning is all about will be found less and less in the conception of the scholar and more and more in the scholar-citizen and in the citizen-scholar. Viewed in this way, it turns out that liberal learning is non-vocational, and at the same time nothing but vocational.

This brings me to the second reason why I discussed the format and concept I have; namely, the nature of the student of the 1970's. There are many sources to draw on for indication of transitions from student profiles of the 1960's. One of the most recent is the report of Yankelovich and Clark. Their data indicate that today's students have had it with social reform; that they are preoccupied with career and self-fulfillment choices; that they are in a search for new norms; that they are changing their attitudes toward work and seeing differently the role and importance of money in defining the meaning of success; that they are realizing there must be more to life than making a living, i.e., struggling to make ends meet and being concerned with the needs of others. These researchers report young people today are attempting to consolidate their private values and synthesize them with career goals, perceptibly more aware that a marriage between the desire for personal fulfillment and a successful career is not nearly as impossible as might have been conceived by "job-success" oriented graduates of the 1950's. Nor does career fulfillment mean matrimony and a family. More likely this new breed will focus on challenging work, the freedom to express itself, and more time for outside interests. The emphasis even now seems to be on self development, physical well being, self fulfillment both on and off the job.

Equally important are these researchers' data on non-college youth, including those working in blue-collar jobs. They, too, seem to ascribe to a definition of success in which the focus is on self-fulfillment, quality of life, and financial security.

> While a majority (57 percent) of non-college youth state that economic security and providing for their family will come first in planning their future, a substantial minority (43 percent) agree with the following statement: "In thinking about the future, I'm really not that concerned with economic security. I guess I take it for granted. I'm more concerned with doing things that will give me a sense of self-fulfillment." With the New Values spreading so quickly it is a fair assumption that this 43 percent is likely to increase, perhaps even to the 56 percent "self-fulfillment comes first" levels now prevailing among college youth. Among young blue-collar workers "interesting work" is just as important a desired job attribute as money.

These statements speak about the youth of society. Probably the most noteworthy trend lies in the great surge for formal and informal learning opportunities among those above college age, i.e., 22 to 65. The millions who watched Bronowski's Ascent of Man, who are attracted to study in the philosophies men live by, who seek out formal presentations detailing current economic and political issues--along with acquiring or refining skills for making a living, are apparently as much moved by a sense of self-fulfillment as need to make a living. Too, if Yankelovich's results on youth are applicable to the adult population, the group among whom the greatest frustration will be felt will be non college-blue collar workers who perceive as limited their chances for self-fulfillment.

It would appear that among youth and adults alike minorities, veterans, women, non-college, college: the current desire for new alternatives is strongly buttressed by the value structure of a newly emerging culture; conceivably, I would add, an emerging culture more closely attuned to a liberal learning tradition--more and more in scholar-citizen and

[illegible] scholar images.

The third [illegible] has to do with the anticipated advent of [illegible] events as technology is applied to education. Imagine what can happen [illegible] when computer operated, multisource running video tapes are up in regional depositories are connected to a telephone dial system operating multi-channel educational T. V. sets as exist today. Thousands of the finest lectures, seminars, plays, readings, demonstrations instantly become available by a turn of the dial and at a time convenient to the viewer. In the light of this exciting "happening," it appears almost ludicrous to talk about sharply compartmentized campuses, classrooms, fixed age groups to be educated, prescribed curricula, relevancy, finished products, tags and maybe even degrees. This is not meant to sweep these away to reinstate manners, college recipients of scholars and students, [illegible] campus with their scholar-volunteers and craftsmen of varying sorts teaching as citizen-scholars and scholar-citizens, citizen-craftsmen and craftsman-citizens. What it does ask, however and more poignantly than ever before, is the question "Education for what?"

Designation, I believe, we are in the beginning stages of this growing small transition, and because we are, a few further observations should be made.

Something commonplace and circumstantial seem as encouraging to sociologist and to philosopher or anthropologist has emergence adequately the signs appearing on the horizon. Inevitably and agonizingly, society emerges from the agrarian age to be successful headlong into an industrial era. Now

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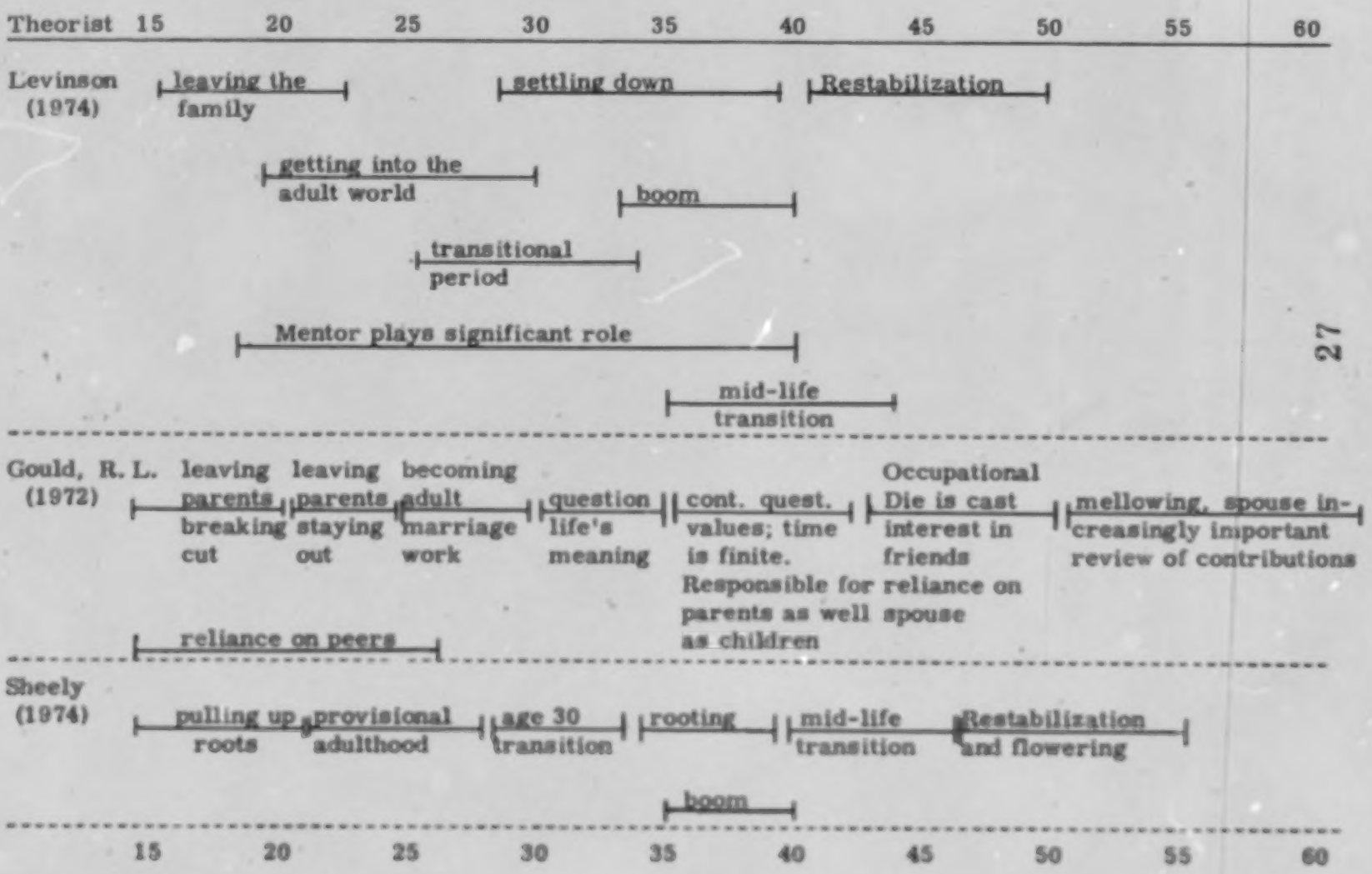
Figure 2
Developmental Stages



During the mid-twenties-a period of "provisional adulthood"--first commitments to work, to marriage and family, and to other adult responsibilities are lived out. Then another transitional period occurs during the late 20's and early 30's where these initial commitments are re-examined and their meaning questioned. The long range implications of continuing with the current work, spouse, community, life style, have become apparent and one or more of these may look less challenging or satisfying than at 22. In some cases changes must be made. In others, reaffirmation and renewed commitment occurs on a more solid basis, sometimes after trial flirtations with one or more alternatives.

The thirties are a time for settling down, achievement, Becoming One's Own Man (BOOM). But as the forties approach, time becomes more finite. Responsibility for parents begins to be assumed while responsibilities for adolescent or college age children continue. The likely limits of success and achievement become more apparent and the "mid-life transition" is at hand. Major questions concerning priorities and values are examined. Unless a change in work is made now the die is cast. Affirmation of the earlier career most frequently occurs, but with moderated expectations and drive. A long standing marriage may be temporarily or permanently upset. Friends, relatives, and spouse become increasingly important as "re-stabilization" occurs during the late 40's and 50's. Interests foregone in the service of work receive more attention. Mellowing and increasing investment in personal relationships characterizes the 50's.

These abstractions do little justice to the work of Levinson and Gould.

Read them. If you are under sixty, you'll find yourself clearly captured. (See Figure 3)

Bernice Neugarten's work (1963, 1971) built on Erik Erikson's seminal formulations (1950, 1959) concerning the life cycle. Figure 3 summarizes some of her findings juxtaposed with Erikson's major adult stages. Neugarten, more than any other theorist, elaborates the role of age and timing in adult development. The shift from "time since birth" to "time left to live" sets boundaries for other major changes: from sense of self-determination to sense of the inevitability of the life cycle, from mastery of the outer world, through re-examination, to withdrawal and pre-occupation with inner self and sponsoring others; from achievement to self-satisfaction.

These various studies tell those of us who would serve adult students and encourage life-long learning much that we need to know. They identify major motives which lead students to pursue further education. They suggest the more fundamental concerns and developmental tasks which lie behind the desire for a degree, the pursuit of a better or different job, the wish to read more widely and experience more deeply, to meet new persons and new ideas, to explore dimly seen horizons.

But there is more to know.

Developmental Stages

Instead of studying developmental ages, another group of theorists have formulated developmental stages. The top section of Figure 4 summarizes several theorists who have conceptualized comprehensive stages of development.

Figure 3

The Life Cycle

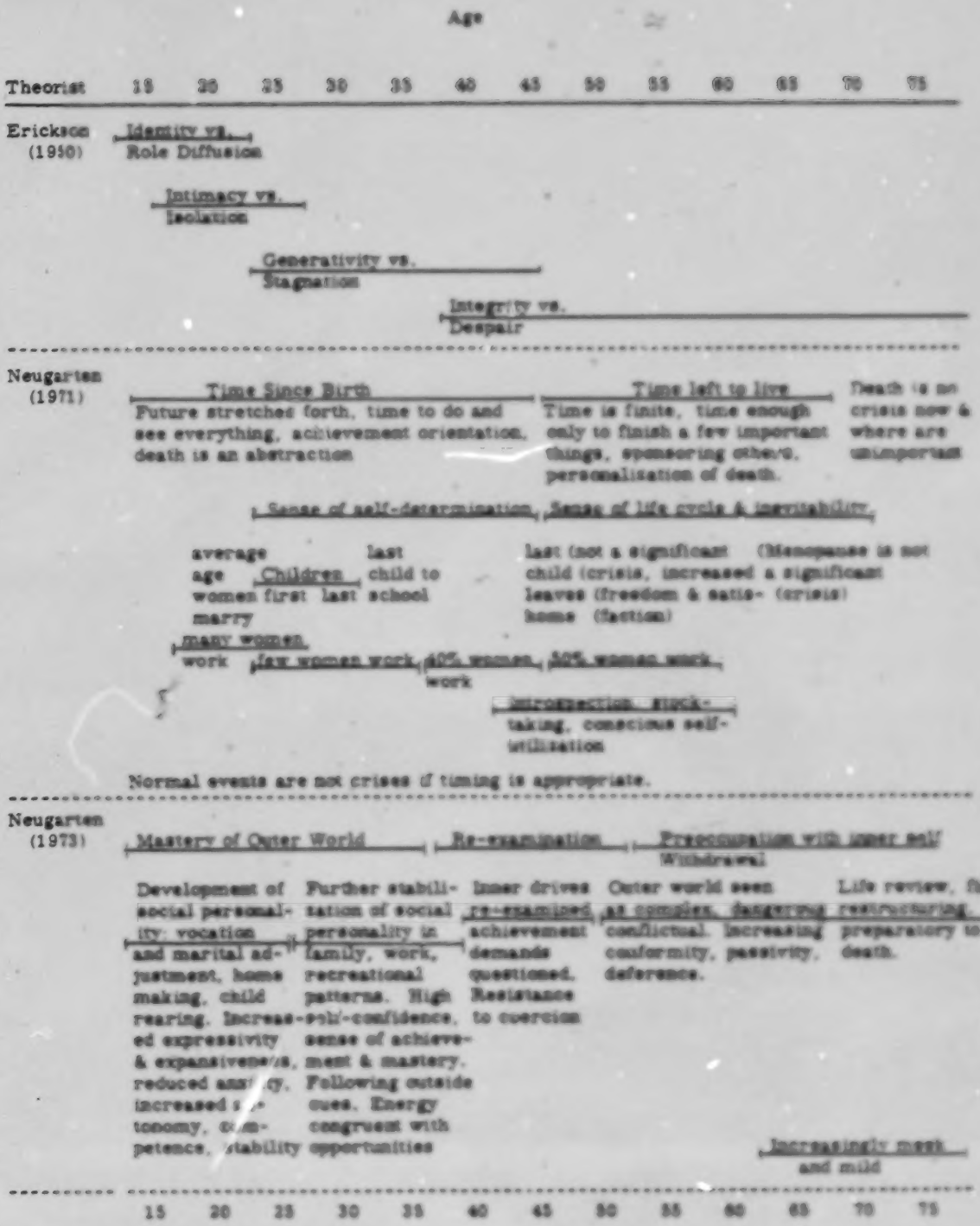

Age
Theorist
15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70 75
Erickson (1950)
Identity vs. Role Diffusion
Intimacy vs. Isolation
Generativity vs. Stagnation
Integrity vs. Despair
Neugarten (1971)
Time Since Birth
Future stretches forth, time to do and see everything, achievement orientation, death is an abstraction
Time left to live
Time is finite, time enough only to finish a few important things, sponsoring others, personalization of death.
Death is no crisis now & where are unimportant
Sense of self-determination
Sense of life cycle & inevitability
average age women first marry
Children
last child to school
last (not a significant crisis)
child (crisis, increased freedom & satisfaction)
Menopause is not a significant leaves home (factor)
many women work
few women work
40% women work
40% women work
Introspection, stock-taking, conscious self-utilization
Normal events are not crises if timing is appropriate.
Neugarten (1973)
Mastery of Outer World
Re-examination
Preoccupation with inner self/ Withdrawal
Development of social personality: vocation and marital adjustment, home making, child rearing. Increased expressivity & expansiveness, reduced anxiety, increased autonomy, competence, stability
Further stabilization of social personality in family, work, recreational patterns. High self-confidence, sense of achievement & mastery. Following outside cues. Energy congruent with opportunities
Inner drives re-examined, achievement demands questioned. Resistance to coercion
Outer world seen as complex, dangerous conflictual. Increasing conformity, passivity, deference.
Life review, final restructuring preparatory to death.
Increasingly mask and mild
15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70 75

Figure 6

Author	Amoral	Fearful Dependent	Opportunistic	Conforming to Persons	Conforming to Rule	Principled Autonomous
			Age or Character Types			
Peck & Havighurst (1960)	1. amoral		2. expedient	3. conforming	4. irrational-conventional	5. rational-altruistic
C. Kluckhohn, Murray & Grant (1953)	i_1 presocial	i_3 passive dependent	i_4 conformist (exploitative)	i_5 conformist (cooperative)	i_6 authoritarian guilty	i_8 anti-conformist i_7 integrative
Harvey, Hunt & Schroder (1961)	Sub-I	1. absolutistic-evaluative	2. self-differentiating	3. empathic		4. integrated-independent
Loevinger (1970)	1. presocial symbiotic	2. impulse-ridden, fearful	3. self-protective	4. conformist	5. conscientious	6. autonomous integrated
Vaudon Davis (1963)	1. sanitation-oriented	2. conflict-avoidant	3. peer and reciprocity oriented	4. social conformist	5. duty and responsibility	6. independent agent orientation 7. self-social integration
			Moral Stage			
Kohlberg (1968)	0. Egocentric	1. Obedience & punishment oriented	2. Instrumental egoism & exchange	3. Good-boy approval oriented	4. Authority, rule & social order oriented	5. Social contract legalistic orientation 6. Moral principle orientation
Perry (1970)	1. Basic dualism	2. Multiplicity prelegitimate	3. Multiplicity Subordinate 4. Multiplicity Correlate or Relativism Subordinate	5. Relativism Correlate, Competing, or Diffuse	6. Commitment Foreseen	7. Initial Commitment 8. Orientation to Implications of Commitments 9. Developing Commitments

[1] Adapted from Kohlberg, 1973, p. 66

Loevinger, describing their general similarities, says, "All of the conceptions project an abstract continuum that is both a normal developmental sequence and a dimension of individual differences in any given age cohort. All represent holistic views of personality and all see behavior in terms of meaning or purpose. . . . All are more or less concerned with impulse control and character development, with interpersonal relations, and with cognitive pre-occupations, including self-concept. . . . Finally, although the sequence of stages is not identical from author to author, there are many recurring similarities" (1976, 3). (See Figure 6)

Loevinger gives us a general sense of the later stages. After summarizing the pre-social, impulsive, and self-protective stages of childhood, she says, "More people have recognized this [conformity] stage than any other. Here the child identifies himself with authority, his parents at first, later other adults, then his peers. This is the period of greatest cognitive simplicity. There is a right way and a wrong way, and it is the same for everyone all the time, or for broad classes of people. . . . What is conventional and socially approved is right. . . . Rules are accepted because they are socially accepted . . . . Disapproval becomes a potent sanction. There is high value for friendliness and social niceness. Cognitive preoccupations are appearance, material things, reputation, and social acceptance . . . People and one's own self are perceived in terms of social group classifications. Individual differences are scarcely perceived. The way things or people are and the way they ought to be are not sharply separated . . . . People in the conformist stage constitute either a majority

or a large minority in almost any moral group. . . .

"The transition between the conformist and the conscientious stages is marked by heightened consciousness of self and of inner feelings. The transition appears to be painful for students during the first two years of college. A related aspect of the transition is perception of multiple possibilities in situations. Rules are seen to have exceptions or to hold only in certain contingencies. Inner states and individual differences are described in more and differentiated terms. One feels guilty not primarily when one has broken a rule, but when one has hurt another person. Motives and consequences are more important than rules per se. Long term goals and ideals are characteristic; ought is clearly different from is . . . One is aware of choices, to oneself for goals, one is concerned with living up to ideals and improving oneself. The moral imperative remains, but it is no longer just a matter of doing right and avoiding wrong. There are questions of priorities and appropriateness. Achievement is important, and it is measured by one's own inner standards rather than being primarily a matter of competition or social approval.

"The autonomous stage is so named partly because one recognizes other people's need for autonomy, partly because it is marked by some loosening of the person from the often excessive striving and sense of responsibility during the conscientious stage. Moral dichotomies are no longer characteristic. They are replaced by a feeling for the complexity and multifaceted character of real people and real situations. There is a keener respect for other people and their need to find their own way and even make their own mistakes. . . . We do not believe that inner conflict is more characteristic

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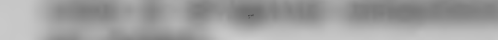

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concerning staffing, resources for learning, and evaluation are more soundly settled.

The research and theory concerning developmental stages has broader implications. There are logical relationships between developmental stages on the one hand, and teaching practices, student-teacher relationships, and evaluation on the other. Substantial empirical evidence supports these relationships. Consider, for example, Witkin's (1972) research on field dependent and field independent students, Stern's studies of authoritarians, anti-authoritarians and rationals and on relationships between student needs and educational environments (1970) and the work of Feldman and Newcomb (1969), Chickering (1969), Chickering and McCormick (1973), Heath (1960) and others concerning college impacts on student development. The relationships postulated are all consistent with those varied bodies of theory and research. (See Figure 7)

The lecture-examination system as typically practiced best suits the fearful-dependent, opportunistic, and conforming to persons' levels of ego development and the obedience-punishment, instrumental egoism and exchange, and good-boy orientations of Kohlberg. The key dynamic here is the comfortable fit between (a) the student's disposition to identify with persons in authority, to accept their definitions of right and wrong, to avoid punishment by deferring to their power, and (b) the teacher's assertion of authority, an emphasis on dispensing information for students to memorize, and use of exams to punish wrong answers and reward right ones. When the lecture-examination approach goes beyond the personal authority of the teacher and makes use of more ab-

Figure 7

Adult Development and Educational Practice

Ego Development	Moral Development	Teaching Practice	Student-Teacher Relationships	Evaluation
Amoral	Egocentric			
Fearful Dependent	Obedience-punishment oriented	Lecture-Exam	Teacher is authority transmitter judge Student is receiver,	By teacher only
Opportunistic	Instrumental Egoism & Exchange	Teacher led dialogue or discussion	judge	By teacher only
Conforming to Persons	Good-boy approval Oriented	Open "leaderless" "learner centered" discussion	Teacher is a "model" for student identification	By teacher and peers
Conforming to Rule	Authority, rule and social order oriented	Programmed learning Correspondence study Televised instruction	"Teacher" is an abstraction behind system. Student a recipient	By system
Principled autonomous	Social contract legalistic oriented	Contract learning. I Time, Objectives, activities, evaluation negotiated between student and teacher at the outset and held throughout.	Teacher is resource Contributes to planning and evaluation. Student defines purposes in colleagial relationship with teacher.	By teacher, peers system, self. Teacher final judge.
	Moral principle orientation	Contract learning. II Time, objectives, activities, evaluation defined generally by student modifiable with experience		By teacher, peers system, self. Self final judge.

stract authority, as often is the case, then the approach moves to an authority, rule, and social-order oriented level. Here it is the system which defines right and wrong. The same authoritarian dynamic occurs except that it is more generalized.

Socratic dialogue or teacher led discussion best fit the opportunistic, instrumental egoism and exchange level; they provide rich information about the teacher's views and permit the student to shape his own responses accordingly, receiving immediate rewards through the satisfying exchanges which result. Open, "leaderless," "learner-centered" discussions best fit the conforming to persons, approval orientation when sensitivity, pleasing and helping others, acceptance of group decisions are called for. Programmed learning, correspondence study, and most other forms of "mediated instruction" currently used fit well the authority, rule, and social order orientation.

Contract learning takes two forms. In one form the objectives are set by the student but the time, activities, and criteria for evaluation result from negotiations between the student and teacher. The contract is a commitment to the plan developed and the plan is to be held throughout unless major events call for renegotiation. This approach to contract learning best fits the principled autonomous stages of ego development, and social contract, legalistic orientation of moral development. In the second form of contract learning, the student with or without help from the teacher and others, defines the objectives, time, activities and criteria for evaluation. The "contract" may be quite specific or very general. In either case it will be held flexibly and modified in the light of experience as it is pursued. This approach to con-

tract learning best fits the principled autonomous stage and moral principle orientation.

The different teaching practices also are expressions of different approaches to student-teacher relationships and evaluation. The teacher is an authority, transmitter, and judge, who carries sole responsibility for evaluation, best fits the obedience-punishment, and the opportunistic instrumental egoism stages. Where the teacher is a model, known well enough to permit student identification, and where evaluation includes fellow students as well as the teacher, there is a fit with the conforming to persons, approval-oriented stage. In programmed learning and other forms of mediated instruction the teacher is an abstraction behind the system. Criteria for evaluation are specified by the system and responses are often machine-scored. In contract learning the teacher is a resource person who contributes to planning and evaluation. The relationship may be more or less colleagial and the student may carry more or less responsibility for defining the program and for evaluation, depending upon the approach used. The teacher-student relationship, and the approaches to learning and evaluation in contract learning best fit the principled autonomous stages of ego development and moral development.

Note that the approaches to teaching and learning can be additive. A discussion may examine or enrich information received from a lecture. Contract learning can include lectures, discussions, programmed learning, but it is not limited to one or the other.

If these relationships are sound, there are several things we need to

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become more explicit about in planning new programs and improving current practices.

1. We need to recognize individual differences in developmental stages. Any institution serving a diverse range of adults will have students at different developmental ages and different developmental stages, ranging from opportunistic to principled-autonomous levels of ego development, from obedience-punishment orientation to moral principle orientation in moral development, and from concrete operations and memorization to complex formal operations, application and evaluation in intellectual development.

In addition there are several other major dimensions of individual differences which must be taken into account. Figure 7 suggests a few of the more significant. We already recognize the importance of some of these such as verbal and quantitative skills. Each person has his or her independent profile on these different dimensions. The ideal program would be tailored to each person's profile. Developmental stages are of such wide ranging significance that their recognition is critical.

In arguing for increased attention to individual differences I am most emphatically not suggesting a complex set of pigeon holes for students which are then matched up with diverse educational programs. But students and faculty members can become much more knowledgeable about such information so that institutional planning and student choices rest on more solid foundations. Then lectures, discussions, programmed texts, learning contracts, and other programmatic alternatives can be developed in the light

such information, so that we move the art of teaching and the process of learning to more complex levels. (See Figure 8)

2. We cannot simply pitch the educational program at the highest developmental stage. Instead we must develop alternatives which cover the full range and which help those students who will move from one stage to another. There are many opportunistic and conformist students who come to us with important purposes which deserve to be met. We should not ignore those purposes and turn away or turn off those students. But neither will those students be fully served if they are not helped to understand more clearly the dynamics of age and stage by which they are more generally governed.

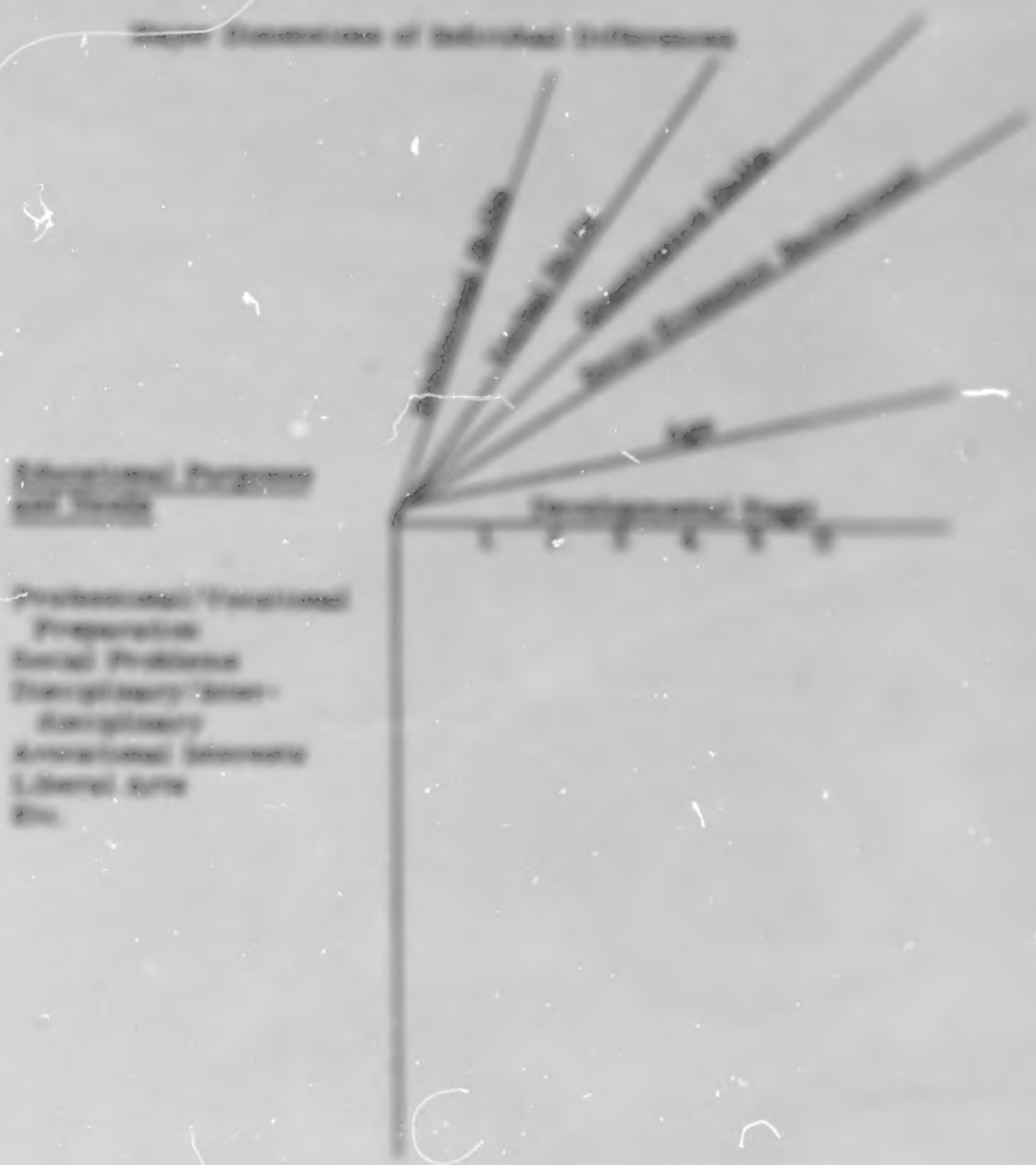
We also have substantial numbers of more autonomous students ready and able to operate in terms of their own principles and purposes. Neither should our teaching practices and institutional processes and requirements ignore or turn off these students.

3. As new alternatives are developed we need to give students rich information about them. The objectives concerning knowledge, competence, personal development need to be clearly articulated. The kinds of study activities, field experiences, student-faculty relationships required, the expectations concerning collaborative work or informal exchange by students, the criteria and methods of evaluation all need to be described as fully as possible, and illustrated with concrete cases.

4. Then we need a process by which each student is helped to select those alternatives which will create a degree program most suitable for him

Figure 6

Major Dimensions of Individual Differences



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The focus of our attention moves to the faculty-student academic advising process. It is a thesis of this paper that the way that this process is structured is very crucial to the success and persistence of the student advisee. An examination of the typical situation indicates that advisors are assigned to students within the boundaries of arbitrary guidelines and the faculty advisors are provided some data about the student. These data most often include test scores, high school rank, and the stated major interest.

The academic advising process is subject to breakdowns preventing the accomplishment of its goals due to at least three factors:

1. The needs and expectations of the present day student. The typical student is more interested in the affective rather than the cognitive aspects of the relationship. The student wants to establish a relationship and to get to know the faculty member. There is a sense in which the young person is disillusioned with authority so he enters into advising wanting to deal with topics as one human being to another. When the advising process enables this to happen the expectations of the student may be met.

2. The inclination of the faculty member to deal only with schedule making. A typical leadoff question is: "Do you know what you want to take?" Immediately the student is at a disadvantage for he seldom really knows enough about the curriculum to know what he wants. Such an opening also leads away from the exploration of mutual interests which are an essential preliminary for the development of a meaningful relationship. The assumption by the faculty member of the role of the expert makes it difficult for the type of contract to be made that the student generally wishes to see develop.

3. The data about the student is often misinterpreted, especially low scores and high scores. During the fifties and sixties faculty were trained to regard low test scores and low high school rank as evidence that the student had inadequate potential. The idea that the low scores might represent learning needs which the college could satisfy occurred to very few. The persistence of these ideas of low potential accounts for much of the resistence of faculty to supplemental programming designed to overcome deficits. Accompanying this negative reaction of faculty to low scores is the widespread belief that students with high level data will make it on their own, without acknowledging that the student may need highly specialized help in finding enough sources of enrichment to maintain an intellectual challenge. An examination of students who drop out of a given college often reveals that many well performing students lose interest because they feel that the college is not equipped to meet their needs.

The nature and extent of the dilemma emerges more clearly. How can a typical college possibly hope to be able to program for the highly diverse learning needs of a heterogeneous student body? A response to this question must be forthcoming in the near future if a given college is to measure up to the demands of a changing society and a changing mission. This point of view is supported by a current report of the Carnegie Commission on Teaching which points out that during the next five years, one out of ten colleges will either have to merge or discontinue their program. Whether the prediction is highly accurate is less significant than the fact that there is real pressure building up to bring college programs in line with the needs of society.

In order to open up the realm of available alternatives, I would like to present a Model which has been designed to meet many of the problems encountered in the design and implementation of efforts to identify student learning abilities and needs. This Model is intended to be an illustration of possible approaches and not to be a master pattern of something to be reproduced exactly on every campus. This Model is called The Academic Development Survey.

THE ACADEMIC DEVELOPMENT SURVEY

The Academic Development Survey (ADS) is a counseling aid, provided to advisors of entering freshman. It is a booklet of positive suggestions, adapted to individual students, which effectively relates their learning needs to the resources actually available on the local campus. The advisor is provided information about the level of each student's preparation without receiving actual test scores. In addition, a set of actual learning prescriptions for personal development within the local campus environment are identified and provided for possible use by the advisor. In a real sense the ADS places the focus of the initial advising sessions upon ways in which resources of the college and the developmental needs of the student can be brought together.

The creation of the ADS on a given campus should follow a well defined plan with an appropriate timetable. The details of the plan might vary according to individual preference but there have been a number of factors determined by experience to warrant inclusion in every approach. The identification of these factors and a brief discussion of the concepts are covered in the following section of the paper.

First, recognition is needed that the ADS must be created locally as a result of the interaction of concerned faculty, students, and staff. The interaction process is an essential preliminary to the development of a usable and effective counseling instrument. It is not possible to take the Academic Development Survey which has been developed on one campus and use it on another. Each college has its own unique set of resources and the ADS must relate these unique resources to the individual students. In addition, the people who are to use the advising aid should participate in its creation. Second, an extensive discussion needs to be held to identify those areas of student abilities and/or learning needs which are crucial to success at the college. While the resultant lists may vary from college to college they will tend to include such areas as reading, writing, critical thinking, mathematics, vocabulary, and study habits. Two factors are especially important in identifying the final lists: (1) the final number of areas should be between four and six for purposes of convenience and, (2) the college must have resources or be willing to develop resources in these areas. It would be detrimental to focus attention upon a learning deficit if no realistic way existed to identify practical resources available to the student for personal development.

Third, the selection of ways to measure the degree to which each student possesses each critical learning ability is the next step in the process. This selection is governed by a number of arbitrary principles: creative adaptation should be made of test data already available, the total time

for testing students should be as far less than a half day as possible, and no single test should take over forty-five minutes.

Experience has shown in the past that colleges often have ACT scores or SAT scores. If this is so, there is every likelihood that they have not been used except for the identification of college aptitude. With some adaptations they can be used in the ADS. In the case of the ACT scores there is the possibility of using the Mathematics score, the English score, and the Social Science score. The latter can be used as an approximation of the reading ability of the student since the type of test items utilized reflects the students ability to read prepared material and then demonstrate comprehension by answering multiple choice questions. The SAT is less specific but does give indirect indications of reading and mathematical preparation. For example, students with a Verbal Score on the SAT below 350 have serious reading and vocabulary problems. While the exact nature of the problem is not isolated, there is no doubt that supplementary help in reading is needed before the individual has a realistic chance of success in most colleges.

The identification of other tests appropriate for a given college should be done with the staff of the college. As a suggestion, however, attention is called to the Stanford Test of Academic Skills (TASK) published by Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc. The complete battery of TASK consists of three tests: Reading, English, and Mathematics. The tests may be used separately, without the others in the battery, and each has a forty minute time limit. This means that the three most crucial areas can be tested for in the actual working time of two hours. One college is using the TASK Reading and the TASK Math-

emotics and is asking for a twenty-five minute writing sample in place of the TASK English Test. Whether or not these tests are acceptable is largely dependent upon the staff members of the areas affected since their involvement in the decision making process is important.

It is valuable to note at this point that the function of these measuring instruments is not to develop a precise placement of the student in the reading lab or in the sequence of math courses. Such placement testing will have to be done at another time because it is too time consuming for the entire group to participate. For example, it would not be wise to have students who are having difficulty with basic algebraic concepts to sit through an additional hour or two of more advanced math placement tests. This could prove very frustrating.

The major purpose of the ASK testing is to make broad discriminations which identify the students as having a significant need for development, a moderate need for development, or some need for development. Such broad distinctions avoid the making of any serious errors in the identification process. Illustrative of the approximate numbers in each category, one might expect to find fifty percent of the students in the moderate group with twenty-five percent in each of the other two categories. Actual numbers, of course, are dependent upon the make-up of the student body and the extent of the campus resources available.

For the most meaningful approach, local norms must be used rather than dependence upon national norms. This is due to the fact that we are concerned about the level of performance required in achieving satisfactorily

at the specific college and only secondarily interested in how the students at this college compare with college students in general. The development of the local norms is a professional task and should not be done without as sound a basis as possible.

In general, local norms are based upon the level of ability that is actually required at the local college to be identified as a superior student, an average student, and/or an underprepared student. Obviously, these levels vary from campus to campus and often great differences exist. It is not appropriate to say, without careful study, that every student who scores below the fourth percentile nationally needs supplemental help. Whether they do or not depends upon the nature of courses offered and characteristics of the student body.

One way some is planning that if one of the areas to be included in the ASH is Study Habits that there is an effective alternative to actually administering a Study Habits inventory. It is to include the page of prescriptions in the booklet but to ask the student to evaluate themselves. They, then, select one of the three categories to which they will be placed. It appears that this is a legitimate procedure because study habits are assessed by self report. In effect, this suggested procedure results in score satisfaction on the part of the advisee. The alternatives for self development can then be adjusted in the light of the students self placement.

Decisions about the tests to be employed and the establishment of local norms is a process which takes place independently of the identification of the crucial areas to be included in the ASH and the identification of the group to-

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educational development, faculty development offices, all suggest that, just as we earlier gave up the teacher's responsibility for student personal and moral development by creating deans of students, we may now be giving up a broad feeling of responsibility among deans and department chairs by centralizing this faculty development function as well in a single person or office. Centralization of function is fine, if you are sure you want the function centralized. But there is a price to pay, in that others may then give up the function.

Activities in faculty development programs seem relatively common across institutions. Most common, at least in Title III programs, is allowing the faculty member to complete degree requirements. (It should be noted that there is little evidence to suggest that people with doctorates teach any better than people without them, but the experience doesn't harm them much. Some day soon, a teacher denied tenure because of lack of possession of a doctorate may take the issue to court a la Griggs, forcing the institution to show that possession of a doctorate is for professors demonstrably a measure of superior job performance. That will be an interesting case.)

The wealth of new ways of packaging and evaluating curriculum (with little attention to curriculum content) now present in many colleges has produced many skill workshops and class videotaping sessions. The latter seem to have a particularly vivid quality, and usually produce considerable change in teacher behavior. No critic or coach is usually needed; the extraordinary experience of watching yourself teach is more than enough stimulus.

Mini-grant programs, providing almost immediate payment of small

amounts of money for course improvements during the term, have proved very successful at such institutions as the University of Tennessee. At the state level, the California State University and Colleges' Fund for Fund for Innovation, directed by David Provost, is moving into a very promising state mini-grant program. Indeed, this entire program might serve as a model for other states desiring to develop better instruction within the state's public institutions.

Professional growth contracts, about which I have written previously,[1] are beginning to show good results at New College, University of Alabama; Hampshire College; Gordon College, and many other institutions. In this form, every instructor develops an individualized plan for his/her professional growth every three or four years. Contracts consist of the statement of the skills, activities, and knowledge the faculty member wishes to acquire, a statement of the resources needed to bring this about, and an evaluation plan to discover whether the desired results were attained. Such a plan can easily be superimposed over a tenure system. It is not a way to fire people; professional growth contracts should not generally be used in the decisions on promotion and tenure, as these are "best foot forward" games like accreditation. Contracts presume weaknesses or areas in need of improvement. No teacher in his/her right mind would willingly admit weaknesses in a normal AP & T procedure. Improvement is not therefore, likely to be a result of such

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[1] "Tenure in a Broader Context," in B. Smith ed., The Tenure Debate, San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1973.

procedures. It is, however, likely to happen with professional growth contracts. (Needless to say, administrators can also use this model to advantage.)

Another major area of improving faculty performance has to do with a more careful analysis of how the institution uses its most previous resource--faculty time. Time spent teaching students in classrooms is usually the basis of "load" calculations, even though this is only a small fraction of a teacher's activity. Thus we put our worst foot forward by giving the public the smallest number of hours possible as "faculty load." Many people believe that university faculty only work 6 or 9 hours a week, as that is the way load data is usually presented to the public.

More interesting (and useful) would be a load index based on all the activities faculty members engage in that are educationally related. Dr. Richard Meeth and I are currently developing such an index and have field-tested it in a number of institutions. By May, we will have cost data on each activity. Thus, to improve faculty productivity may not mean getting them to produce more credit hours (unless you think credit hours are related to learning) but to find out how much time and effort is going into the variety of faculty activities. If you do this kind of analysis, certain things will probably develop--30% of your faculty will turn out to be doing 70% of your committee work, departments will differ widely on their commitment to advising, etc. Simply getting all faculty to teach an identical number of courses is not going to equalize workload. Teachers are on occasion remarkably like human beings, and as such do some things better than others. Under the notion of

differentiated staffing, different people do different things--their workloads are equal but not identical. (Unions, of course, dislike this sort of thing.)

Committees are one of the prime users of faculty time and energy. Committees almost never have a clear-cut statement of their functions, their results are seldom acted upon, skills needed for effective committee service are seldom promoted (e.g., how many faculty and students know how to read a budget?), yet Hofstra spends over $400,000 a year on committees of the university alone, neglecting departments, and it is rumored that Michigan State puts the expenditure of human time in committees at $2.5 million. What does an institution get in return for this enormous expenditure of faculty time and energy? When we begin to think of time as money, will the investment be worth it? Are there alternative decision-making structures which will insure broad access to the analysis of issues, competence in the making of decisions, and responsible implementation of the decision? The answer is unquestionably yes.

Much has been made recently of the need to retrain and retool faculty who will be working with the "new students" who are supposedly flocking into the new non-traditional programs. Some colleges and universities are extending hours and restricting residence requirements to meet the needs of adult learners, others are trying to develop special programs of a general educational nature for adults, some are developing programs based on learning contracts for adult learners, while others are entirely based on credit by examination, as the Regents Degree program in New York state. All of these suggest that massive programs of faculty development and retooling will be needed as the

"new students" pour into colleges and universities. However, a careful analysis of who the new students actually are is revealing--they are not the poor, minority groups, the housewife returning to education. Indeed, they resemble the typical 18- to 22-year-old college cohort, except that they are older. Open door policies do not seem to attract "new students" in large numbers; they must be actively recruited.

This is not to say that adults do not require special skills of professors; the question concerns the nature of the skills to be required. And if one asks adults what they would like, many of their expressed needs have nothing to do with degrees, credits, or even classrooms. Not only are faculty not well equipped to meet adult needs in the personal and affective domain; colleges and universities may not be the best places to meet these needs. There is an adult market of 10 to 30 million people needing something in their lives that is missing, but it is not clear that colleges and universities, no matter how dedicated the faculty, can provide many of these things. A better approach might be to think of all the educational resources in an area or state--counseling centers, social welfare agencies, museums, theaters, newspapers, churches, radio and TV, industries, military bases, etc.--and try to make them available, on demand, to the adults who live in the area. New York state is making rapid strides toward becoming a learning society.[2]

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[2] See papers in this area by Norman Kurland and Lucy Comly, New York State Department of Education, Albany, New York, 1973.

Many questions might be raised here regarding the kinds of skills faculty might need in adult programs that may cross state lines, involve clients varying widely in age and ability, include a large amount of non-instructional activity, and cooperate with museums, theaters, newspapers, churches, etc. The dual questions of competence and standards again must be raised.

It is important for all institutions to raise these questions about adults and lifelong learning for a very simple reason--we are about to start running out of 18-year-olds. In addition, a higher percentage of the 18-21 age cohort in the future will be from ethnic minority and from lower socio-economic origins. These trends have already swept through elementary and secondary schools, often with difficult consequences for school finance. It appears that higher education may ignore them until the last minute, through such rationalizations as "There will always be 400 of our kind of of student every year," and "People will continue to seek us out because of our unique program and tradition."

In addition, it may be instructive to begin thinking seriously about the faculty member as a developing, changing adult, dealing with a series of tasks involving professional, personal, and social development. Several of the growth stages have particular relevance for faculty development programs. For example, settling down and moving up, with the conflicting needs to establish geographical stability and raise a family alongside the desire to move up to a "better" institution could be dealt with effectively in individualized faculty contracts. Also the revision of one's aspirations, as

characteristics of mid-life transition or "midlifecrisis" (a period of high alcoholism, suicide, divorce, and drug usage in the public at large), could probably be eased if people were aware of the fact that they were not the only ones going through the trauma of mid-life transition, and that crisis may be useful in producing personal growth.

This is not to suggest dragging the whole faculty through psychoanalysis or T-groups. It does suggest, however, that a necessary component of a program of individualized instruction is to see faculty as well as students as growing, changing, learning individuals. Faculty development programs often have teachers through the identical set of experiences for all participants in a workshop in order to prepare them for "individualized teaching". This did lurked tangle problems emerges here.

Let me now enter some conclusions on a much neglected area: the evaluation of faculty development programs.

First, and perhaps most important, there are three general criteria within which evaluation activities fall. The first of these is criteria: the measurement of kinds of behavior or outcomes the program is designed to encourage; the second is standards: the level of quality of performance which is considered necessary or acceptable level; and the third is techniques: the various ways of answering what levels of performance were attained.

If we break up the evaluation problem in this way, we begin to see that the question of faculty development programs gets more complex. Taking our three major factors in order, we deal 1st with criteria. What, then, are the various outputs or changes which faculty development programs

[illegible] to Kanter? The fact is that there are [illegible] and they are [illegible] caused or demonstrated [illegible]. For [illegible], [illegible] measures a number of different kinds of outcomes of faculty development programs that [illegible] should [illegible] themselves. There is [illegible] to different kinds of faculty subjects. For example, the duration of courses that [illegible] on a consequences of such programs, the effectiveness of [illegible] or absence and performance in courses [illegible], the level of faculty participation in [illegible] activity regarding course improvement, and the ability of faculty members to [illegible] begin to see them [illegible] as problematic - that is, to develop [illegible] and [illegible] [illegible] for improving [illegible] performance. [illegible] might also be concerned at the [illegible] level with [illegible] assessment of faculty morale and feelings of loyalty to the [illegible]. [illegible] of productivity can be viewed at [illegible] [illegible] might also [illegible] play. Other [illegible] might include the quality and style of the [illegible] between the faculty and the [illegible] of [illegible] dealings both at the [illegible] level and [illegible] with external [illegible]. And other [illegible] might include the degree of [illegible] of the faculty at [illegible] risks, their ability to develop [illegible] and strategies, and their ability to [illegible] or not [illegible]. Also, the [illegible] of [illegible] faculty skills - i.e., in [illegible] teaching, [illegible], [illegible] and [illegible] [illegible], preparing course [illegible], etc. [illegible], too, might form part a [illegible] which could be used to [illegible] the quality of a faculty development program.

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2. Exemption and remediation.

With the increasing overlap between high school and college, it makes a great deal of sense to permit students to be exempt from those parts of a course where they can already meet the stated requirements. This is also a crucial element as we move into more programs for adults and in continuous education. On the other hand, and, paradoxically at the same time, we also have a tendency to assume more entering knowledge for all our students than some actually have. This is a particular problem in writing and mathematics. Many students, who may have the needed overall ability to succeed in college but not certain specific skills, continually find themselves faced with failure because we assumed too much. One of the worst disservices to students ever supported by the Government was the program that brought minority students on campus and then placed them into traditional programs regardless of whether or not they had the necessary and assumed prerequisites. It was no wonder that so many of these students became disillusioned and left. We must continually test every assumption we make about entering students.

3. Evaluation at different times and alternative ways.

Obviously, if students are to move through an instructional program at different paces, we must be able to evaluate them when they are ready, not at pre-determined times and dates. In addition,

we find that some students are handicapped in letting you know what they know if all evaluation is based on the ability to write. At times it makes sense to provide the student with options as to how he or she wants to be evaluated. A student might prepare a tape/slide presentation, use a group report, or give a report "live" to the class. We must, in all instances, emphasize the learning outcomes we are after and not let the mode of evaluation affect our attempts to make this assessment.

4. Content options.

   Individualization means building in, wherever possible, content options that relate the core of a program to the interest area of the student. For example, we may include in a music appreciation course an option on opera as a political weapon for history and political science majors or provide special assignments in a statistics course where the same principle is applied to the hard sciences, the social sciences, or to education. When we do this, we find that a course not only becomes more interesting and important in the eyes of the student but also that it can have major impact on how a student perceives other disciplines than his own.

5. A choice in locations.

   All formal education does not have to take place in a classroom or even on a college campus. As we design new programs, we

must ask ourselves how and where can a particular goal best be reached or, in some instances, does location make any difference at all. We should use community resources, libraries, and practical "real world" experiences more effectively. I often wonder if we actually carried this question to the extreme, how much of the academic program would still remain within the formal academic setting.

6. Alternate modes of instruction.

While sometimes overdone, we are finding that at times it does make sense to provide students with more than one way of getting to the same place. While it is not logical (educationally or financially) to provide alternate modes of instruction for all units in all courses, we have found that some students need and want more structure than others, and, therefore, when independent study is being used, it is often necessary to provide a structure alternative for some of the students. We have found that in more traditional settings a well designed instructional sequence, whether it be a seminar, a lecture-discussion, or a programmed unit, can usually do the job for well over 90% of the students. If this is not the case, it is usually a problem of organization and presentation, not of mode or media. In most cases those problems that do remain can be corrected individually if the student is willing--a factor that cannot always be assumed.

How?

What we are talking about is a fundamental change in both the structure and content of instruction at the college and university level. The question is how do we change what a total academic program is and how it operates. To do this we must start with two assumptions.

1. You cannot separate the academic program from the entire climate of the institution.

If you have secretaries who treat students like dirt, poor dormitory accommodations, and a poor recreational program, the academic accomplishments of students will suffer. All too often those of us in academic programs tend to forget that, as research has shown, more learning takes place outside the classroom than in it. Therefore, if we are to make substantial improvements in our instructional effectiveness, we must look at the entire institution.

2. Change will not happen by chance.

A president or dean cannot lock himself or herself in a closet, pray, and expect innovation to occur by the time he or she comes out. Significant change requires both a commitment and an effort.

Change requires top administrative support in word and action. Unless the top administration is behind academic improvement, it will not happen because it will not be allowed to happen. It means proper support in time, talent, and money. You need dollars to hire faculty over the summer; you need the ability to buy and develop new instructional materials; you vitally need the support of the registrar and head librarian; you need evaluation and

development help. These resources are essential for without them you cannot solve some of the problems with which you will be faced.

It means the establishment of a genuine and realistic reward system. You must have a copyright policy, one that is fair to both faculty and institution. At Syracuse we have a policy that shares royalties between the two based on a formula that takes into account whether or not the faculty member was paid specifically to develop the copyrighted material. I have been at two institutions where the lack of such a policy actually stopped some faculty from being involved in academic innovation. A realistic reward system also means increased emphasis on effective teaching within the promotion and tenure system, something we have often said but rarely done. By the way, one additional benefit of a comprehensive development effort is that it generates data that can be used by faculty to support their cases for tenure and promotion.

It requires the establishment of a formal unit to support and facilitate change. While a substantial budget is not required, it is essential that an office or center be established, high in the administrative structure of the institution, and be charged with the systematic improvement of the academic program. Serving as an academic research and development office and as a catalyst for change, this unit not only emphasizes the need for improvement in the academic program but, by its location, can cut red tape, coordinate existing resources, and provide a range of key services to faculty.

Ideally, this unit should contain (or if not possible, have available to it) not only funds to support selected projects but also several specialists

not found within academic departments. The first is what is becoming known as an instructional developer. Not a content specialist, the developer serves in a guiding, directing, and devil's advocate role and works with faculty or faculty teams for the length of a project. By not being a content specialist, the developer can serve more effectively and with far less threat in the catalytic function that is required. Second is the need for an evaluator, not only to help in the assessment of what is development but also to provide the development team with data they will need during the design state of the project. Care must be taken in the selection of both these individuals since so many people who go under these titles are unable to work effectively in the "real" and often highly political world of academic change. The unit will also require secretarial and production capabilities. The cost of such a unit varies substantially from institution to institution but can be implemented, using a part-time evaluator and a developer-director, for approximately $60,000. The key problem will be finding the right people for, as I hinted at previously, talented developers and evaluators are in extremely short supply. A rather interesting and successful approach is being taken in New Hampshire where a development agency has been established in a consortium office to serve a number of small and medium-sized institutions.

A systematic process for change - not only should this unit be established but how it selects its projects and implements them is crucial. While I will not spend an extensive amount of time discussing project selection, how this is done can well determine the potential success of the development agency. Experience on many campuses has shown that supporting

a large number of projects for short periods of time and with a limited number of dollars will result in many friends but few, if any, major improvements in the academic program. Fewer projects of high priority involving several faculty each should be given full support and major changes will result. The shotgunning of developmental support is like throwing a handful of gravel into a pond--an often more political splash, but no long-lasting impact.

In addition, the process that must be followed should not only be systematic, providing both logic and efficiency to the development effort, but it should begin at the beginning. All too often we build into our projects constraints that need not exist and structure in assumptions that are invalid or inaccurate. We must know the students we are going to serve, what they know, what they expect, and what they hope to be. We must have a good picture of the community and its needs and of the school itself and its priorities. All too often we find "developers" insisting that the first step for faculty is to state their objectives in behavioral terms, a process that not only turns off many faculty but one that never questions the validity of what now exists. It is only when we question all our present assumptions, our existing structures, and our accepted context that we can evolve an academic program that is actually the best we can offer with existing resources.[1]

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[1] A detailed description of such a procedure will be found in Chapters III and IV of Instructional Development for Individualized Learning in Higher Education, Diamond et al., Educational Technology Publications, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, January 1975.

Criteria for Success

If achievement change or learning gains as a complex, a variety of assessments should exist. It is easy of these exact achievement that will, as time progresses, be used to demonstrate the effectiveness of any part to systematically support the improvement of instruction. These achievements might, or perhaps should, include:

1. Task Achievement/Work Support Systems

   An attempt to apply to individualized programs. It was discovered that the traditional grading and reporting systems, as well as the environment associated, as passive systems, tend to foster rather than provide the flexibility that is required. Therefore, flexible credit systems sufficient to credit to be learned as new patterns or challenges, and new learned registration systems become a necessity. Complex flexibility in interrelating faculty teaching load to alter circumstances, often creating a major problem for those involved in negotiations with faculty senate since the work traditional student teacher ratio. Administrators contact their approach to the manner to deal with.

2. Task Academic Structures

   The traditional separations between schools, departments, and disciplines tends, at times, to reinforce the potential for new interdisciplinary programs to be developed and implemented. To break the ground for new programs of this type, and cooperative

[illegible]

[illegible]

[illegible]

Shakespeare's thought: "What a piece of work is a man."

And yet Donne wrote, "No man is an island, entire of itself." We live in social contexts and all of us are judged by some standard and by someone. The art and science of evaluation has developed very rapidly during this half of the twentieth century, and we have considerable research to assist in the matter.

The teaching-learning process is difficult to capture with words, but so are the meanings of love, hate, empathy, confidence and a myriad of other intangible emotions and activities. Yet clinical analysis and treatment of these terms are more successful than mystical aspersions about them. We need to use current knowledge and experience to make decisions that are as accurate as the state of the art will allow. To reject what we do know because we do not know everything forces us to rely upon judgments that are made on second hand, hearsay information that probably is personally unfair, professionally unsound or legally indefensible.

Questions of reliability and validity of student ratings inevitably arise. The evidence on the reliability is clear and consistent: Excellent reliability can be expected. Reliability correlations on overtime are high and significant. Ratings by alumni show high correlation with earlier ratings as students or with students currently studying with the same professors. We can count on the reliability of student-rating scales.

We have less evidence on validity. Does the scale measure what it purports to measure, that is, good teaching? Or how do we know that those professors who receive good scores on student ratings are indeed good

teachers? The prepondence of validity studies do support the generalization that carefully developed and administered student-rating scales can be considered valid procedures for assessing the quality of good teaching. One recent study by Frey concluded that "it is fairly clear that an instructional rating system, when properly developed, can provide reliable and valid information about teaching."[2]

Sometimes common sense leads nowhere. For example, it is quite logical to assume that professors should be better teachers than assistant professors. Based upon teaching experience and degree background, this assumption makes sense. Research studies, however, do not agree. The weight of research indicates that little or no differences in teaching performance are found between assistant and full professors, as measured by student evaluations.

Or to take another example of common sense: The better students, with greater grade satisfaction, would be expected to give higher ratings for teaching. Some studies have reached this conclusion but the substantial majority of studies support the conclusion that no significant relationships exist between course grade, achievement, or grade point average and the teaching assessments given by students. The research also indicates that professors who grade higher are not necessarily rated higher.

A key question relates to the affect of student feedback upon the quality of subsequent teaching. The few studies in this area generally indicate that knowing the results of students ratings does improve subsequent instruction. One recent study by Aleamoni found a significant increase in

the student ratings for those faculty members that scored low on the rating scales when the results were discussed in meetings with a measurement and evaluation expert. On the other hand, the group of faculty that received the rating results but did not receive expert consultation remained unchanged in their subsequent ratings.[3] More research is needed on this important matter.

The "Doctor Fox Effect" gave strong support to those who contend that student ratings are a popularity contest. "Dr. Fox", the bogus educator, first made headlines in 1974 when he delivered a lecture on "Mathematical Game Theory as Applied to Physical Education" to three sophisticated audiences of medical educators, students, and other faculty members.

The presentation by Dr. Fox, who was actually a professional actor decked out with phony degrees and publications, was part of a study to determine whether the audience would be seduced by the style of presentation into accepting a lecture composed of doubletalk, contradictory statements, seductive gestures, humor and meaningless references to unrelated topics. None of the 55 listeners detected the hoax, which led the authors of the study to question the validity of student ratings of faculty members.

The latest contribution to the debate was issued in a paper delivered to the annual meeting of the Association of American Medical Colleges. The paper was prepared by Ware, a co-author of the original Dr. Fox study, and Williams, both of the Southern Illinois University School of Medicine. The object of their study was to test whether student ratings of their instructors and student performance on tests are affected by lecturer seduction and by the con-

test-coverage of a lecture.

They used the same Hollywood actor who had posed as Dr. Fox the previous year. He delivered six 10 minute videotaped lectures on the biochemistry of memory. Three lectures were delivered with enthusiasm, humor, expressiveness, friendliness, charisma, and personality. One lecture was high in content. the others were medium and low in content. The content was lowered by removing substantive teaching points from the lecture and substituting experimental details without results, discussion of unrelated examples, short stories, discussion of what "was going to be covered," and circular discussions of unimportant or meaningless thoughts. The other three lectures--with the same high, medium, and low content--were prepared so as to be "low in seduction." Each of the lectures was shown to a separate group of 207 undergraduate students enrolled in a general studies course at Southern Illinois University.

The results suggested that the "Doctor Fox effect" was more complicated than was originally thought to be the case. "It would seem that the use of student ratings to improve teaching and to make decisions regarding faculty may be a 'double-edged sword,'" the authors concluded. "Faculty who master the 'Doctor Fox effect' are more likely to receive favorable student ratings regardless of how well they know their subjects and regardless of how much their students learn. This problem can be avoided with inclusion of a direct measure of student achievement along with student ratings in a faculty evaluation program. . . . On the other hand, the 'Doctor Fox effect' appears to be much more than an illusion. Whereas teaching

style is a major factor in determining student ratings. It is also a potential influence on student test performance."[4]

Research studies that have been conducted on the influence of personality traits on student ratings are not as interesting as the saga of Doctor Fox, but they are instructive. Based upon these results, one can conclude that students are discerning judges of teaching quality and they are not easily misled by a good showman who lacks content and organization. Yet one can agree with Centers who found that an examination of the 61 teachers in the top decile of the annual ratings at the University of Washington "revealed a certain non-giving interest not unlike the interest of an actor or musician, coupled with a friendly manner in dealing with persons, and, most important, an industry and interest in the subject that assures his own preparation and every class period."[5]

If forced to choose the most significant component of assessing teaching effectiveness, student evaluation of teaching would be the problem-atic. Therefore, more time has been spent on this discussion than will be the case for the other five dimensions. The other five components are significant and their importance should depend upon the individual institution and its particularized needs.

Classroom visitation

Evaluation of course content is the province of faculty colleagues rather than students. Students are not in a particularly good position to judge the subject competence of the professor. In the course material current, is the teacher aware of term of the common subject, does he

[illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [

[illegible] [illegible] [illegible] [

Some standardized procedure for undertaking, tabulating and using the result of assessment should be available, and known. The results of the assessment should be available first to the academic dean, then to college or department chairman, then to the individual teacher. This procedure allows the data to be used for both individual professional development and institutional management decisions.

First Principles

Six first principles on assessing teacher effectiveness provide the final section for this paper. These considerations are offered as guidelines for developing programs for assessing teacher effectiveness.

Overall evaluation does take place

Perhaps we should begin with the assumption that no one likes to be evaluated! It is a threatening procedure regardless of how it is approached. Most of us would rather rely upon our own instincts and experiences for evaluation, and these criteria are not bad, but there is more to it, indicated by this exchange in Julius Ceasar between Cassius and Brutus:

> Tell me, Good Brutus, can you see your face?
>
> No, Cassius, for the eye sees not itself
>
> But by reflection, by some other things

Evaluation of some sort, by someone, does take place. The question is whether the procedures used and the individuals using them constitute an optimal and equitable process.

The fact of evaluation of teaching effectiveness is obvious to young, non-tenured, college teachers, but how about the senior professor who has

tenure and detailed knowledge of the institution? How is he evaluated? The present situation calls for self-evaluation as the prime procedure. Rarely do we find a person who has wholly lost interest in his position and institution, and even here, environmental circumstances such as the lack of challenge of opportunity usually are more responsible. Almost everyone want to improve his or her performance because he feels better when he is engaged in purposeful and stimulating activities. But self-evaluation is not enough. Evaluation of teaching effectiveness should apply to full professors as well as beginning instructors although the procedures and frequency for assessment should vary somewhat.

Every system for assessment of teaching can be improved

In his study of faculty promotion practices in 584 institutions of higher learning, Gustad concluded: "A perfectly reliable and valid system of evaluation may, in fact, be for the foreseeable future unattainable; nevertheless, the history of learning, particularly of science, would seem to support the notion that, given time, effort, and the kind of critical appraisal that identified blind allies, reasonable approximations to a goal can be obtained."[14] Improvement of classroom performance should be the primary objective of any program of teaching assessment but one should have no illusions about perfection. The same can be said about many other things, such as standardized tests of intelligence and attitudes.

Some individuals judge procedures for assessing classroom effectiveness terms of absolutes. If evaluation techniques and procedures are less than perfect, they would throw out the more modest advancement that could be

made by a reasonably effective system. Hungate refers to the subjective and human element in evaluation when he writes: "There can be no rational improvement in institutional services without the exercise of value judgments concerning all aspects of operation. Indeed every act of management reflects such judgments. The concern is to provide more adequate bases for them and hence to increase their reliability."[15]

Evaluation procedures should be individualized

Individualization has become a prominent contemporary theme at all levels of education in the United States. As we learn more about complexities of human capabilities and as we develop better techniques of measurement, simplistic and undifferentiated procedures for meeting individual differences are coming under increasing criticism. Procedures to measure teaching effectiveness should be particularized in terms of the institution, the department, and the individual.

Nature of the institution. Few institutions of higher education have developed mission and scope statements for their academic programs. Unless the task of developing mission and scope statements is taken seriously and unless some hard decisions are made about which programs and activities are most important, a system for professional evaluation including assessment of teaching cannot be tied effectively to institutional mission and scope. For example, if an institution has national prestige as a major goal, then professional status and research may receive greater weighing; if the focus is on teaching, then classroom performance and advising may receive greater consideration; and so on. In this way, the faculty evaluation system can assist significantly in

achieving institutional goals.

Nature of the department. A systematic and comprehensive plan for improving instruction through assessing teaching performance calls for an active role for the department chairman and for the dean. The major sifting and culling of assessment information and evidence about each faculty member usually takes place at this level.

Decentralization of managerial responsibilities from the dean to the department chairman is a national trend because of increasing avalanche of paper and forms that threaten to inundate the dean's office, and increasing specialization of subject content that puts competence to appraise performance below the dean's level. One notes an appreciable growth in periodical articles and convention programs focusing on the role and function of the department chairman.

Within the institutional mission and scope statement, there should be flexibility with respect to departmental thrust. Will a political science department, for example, focus its scholarship and teaching on the city, state, or federal levels? Will it decide to focus on young teachers who are interested in developing mathematical models for decision-making or will it seek individuals with broad experiences? These kinds of questions need some clarification before a plan for evaluation of faculty performance including assessment of teaching can have optimum benefit.

Interests and abilities of the individual. The interests and strengths of individual teachers should rule the day -- within the mission and scope of the institution, the division or college, and the department. Late in the spring

term of each year, the department chairman should confer with each faculty member about what professional courses and activities he would prefer for the next academic year and summer. Sometimes the desired courses and activities are not possible in view of basic departmental needs, emergencies, and new developments but a thorough airing of these matters should assist all parties in understanding better the academic environment and its needs.

Assessment of teaching effectiveness is part of a larger dimension--professional development

Professional development--self-renewal--should be available to every faculty member in one form or another, such as sabbatical and research leaves, summer grants, workshops, and postdoctoral scholarships. Faculty development opportunities are sought most often by three dynamic and exemplary professors who, in a sense, need them least.

On the other side of the coin, professional improvement activities should be prescribed for teachers who are not reaching a reasonable level of success in the classroom. This practice reflects the positive dimension of assessment, which is an effort to remedy weaknesses uncovered through assessment procedures. The American Academy of Arts and Sciences, while defending the importance of tenure, recommends that "means ought to be developed to encourage and facilitate the early departure of those who are making small contributions to their institution and their students".[16] But before such steps are taken, every effort should be made to renew and energize the individual. The institution employed an individual with the expectation that he would contribute positively to its purposes. He is innocent until proven guilty, or in

this case until every reasonable effort to improve his classroom performance have been exhausted.

The assessment procedure should be manageable.

Manageability is related to both complexity of the assessing procedure as well as to the gathering and utilization of the data. The academic community tends to equate complexity with quality, and in some cases this is quite defensible, but this circumstance does not apply to assessing teaching effectiveness. If the system is too detailed and complicated, its reliability suffers because it encourages hasty and inaccurate responses. Of course an over-simplified instrument should be avoided also but most academic evaluative procedures error on the side of complexity rather than simplicity. As a rule of thumb, for example, the form that students use for assessing teaching effectiveness should be no more than one page in length, with room for additional questions on the front side and space for written comments on the back. A carefully designed rating form can be developed in this amount of space.

A comprehensive approach should be employed in management and utilization of appraisal data. This approach consists of three separate but interrelated parts. The first step is developing assessment criteria and too often the task finishes here also. Effective and sensitive assessment procedures can fail because sufficient attention is not given to the other two processes, which are procedures for processing the data and how the data will be used. Evaluation procedures fail more often because of faculty management than is realized. Most failures of evaluation schemes are publicly attributed to faculty content when, in fact, the real culprit may well be faculty management

and utilization of data.

At annual evaluation conferences each faculty member and the appropriate administrative officer

Some institutions provide for yearly conferences between faculty members and administrators, but many do not. Some sort of evaluation conference seems to evidence that tenured, full professors have reached their limits of teaching and little is needed to improve them. Some internal governance systems usually are controlled by some individuals, a yearly conference for senior professors may be beneficial or detrimental procedure in some institutions. The senior faculty members conceivably can benefit as much, or not more, than others because they have fewer opportunities to receive professional feedback.

The basic purpose of such a conference should be to improve overall professional performance, including classroom teaching. The conference can be very constructive, depending upon preparation done by the administrative officer as well as the spirit of the occasion. The conference should have a flexible format, and the tone should be frank, specific, general, probing and positive. Anticipated outcomes can be better understanding by faculty members and administrators, analyses of performance that may well include some "things to work on," and satisfactions about things that are being done well. These conferences will not be easy or may not be particularly pleasant for either party, but they can be an important assessment of professional improvement.

And finally, in larger perspective: A university is a human community--

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structional improvement project as their own rather than one devised and operated by outsiders. The more a new program is "owned" by those effected by it, the greater will be full acceptance. Innovations pushed from above or from outside the institution are less likely to succeed than those in which people share. Thus, in order to be successful a proposed faculty development program must be responsive to faculty members needs, based on some diagnosis, designed with their involvement and implemented with their participation.

2. The project has support from the top. Although pushing an instructional innovation from the dean's office without a sense of ownership by the faculty is unwise, few changes in faculty behavior can succeed without firm commitment to them at the highest administrative level of the college or university.

3. Participants see the change reducing rather than increasing their burdens. Participants in a faculty development program should perceive new activities reducing their time commitments, their efficiency and their load. Adding responsibilities to already burdened faculty, administrators or students is no way to gain acceptance of a new program design.

4. The project accords with values and ideals held by the participants. Faculty development programs whose content and purposes agree with traditional values and goals of the college (or the major part of the faculty) are more likely to be accepted than those that clash with existing values. A new way of accomplishing an established goal is therefore more easily implemented than a program supporting an entirely different or new value.

5. The activity is compatible with the existing organizational structure of the institution. Changes or new faculty development activities which fit into the existing college or university structure have a better chance of success than those which require the institution to reorganize itself. Competency based faculty development programs have on occasion urged the faculty to reorganize itself around competencies instead of departments and all too often met with disaster.

6. The program offers the kind of new experience participants desire. Routine can be tedious and the opportunity to do something exciting and new can go far toward gaining acceptance of a new idea.

7. Participants do not feel that their autonomy and security are threatened. When faculty recognize that they have a real choice and that their position in the institution is not likely to be jeapordized if they do not choose to participate, faculty development programs are less likely to be sabotaged by those who originally voted against them.

8. The goals are clear. Foggy goals for a new program lead to implementation failure because participants are not sure what needs to be done. Clear goals are a prerequisite for any program designed to improve instruction.

9. Proponents empathize with opponents and recognize valid objections. Those who oppose an innovation usually have sound reasons and legitimate concerns. Innovators need to listen to the opposition and not force the conservatives to crystallize an opposing position unnecessarily.

10. The project is adopted by concensus. When faculty can agree

to participate in a project or at least allow it to exist within an institution without a vote (which may polarize the faculty into two camps), a program has a much greater chance of success.

11. Provision is made for feedback to clarify misunderstandings. Full, open communication before and during the implementation of any faculty development program not only increases the sense of ownership but enhances the accuracy of interpretation. All parties effected by a change in an institution should be given a chance to respond to all problems they may have with any stage of implementation.

12. The project is supported by orientation or training programs. Undertaking faculty development or instructional growth programs is difficult. New skills must be learned and new approaches to teaching and evaluation must be developed with appropriate new materials and facilities. Success is contingent upon understanding the new roles, tasks, relationships and materials and can best be achieved by a thorough orientation or training program.

13. The project is kept open to revision and reconsideration. No faculty development program works entirely right the first year. Problems and disappointments should be expected and unexpected consequences, sometimes desirable and sometimes not, should be taken into account in both designing and implementing successful programs for faculty.

14. Adequate rewards are present. College faculty and administrators cannot be expected to participate in new programs without some reward which may be as simple as recognition or as confounding as tenure, promotion or merit salary increases. Participants should be rewarded for involve-

ment in new programs at least as fully as they are for participation in traditional teaching activities.

Faculties historically have never been content with any one pattern of behavior or curriculum design for very long at a time. As individuals grow and develop, knowledge expands, societies and institutions rise and fall, faculty behavior changes. Sometimes the change is unconscious, but at other times deliberate; at times perfunctory, at other times radical. Conscious change usually purports to do more effectively that which was already being done. If, for example, teaching is designed to change behavior, a program to improve teaching is fundamentally an attempt to change behavior more effectively.

When changes of this order take place four characteristics are usually present in an institution. When one trait is present the others tend also to be in evidence. Although all are an integral part of any institution's commitment to improve its programs, these characteristics can be differentiated.

The first is the campus atmosphere which must reflect a continual awareness of needs and opportunities for faculty growth and development. Institutional self renewal is a critical pattern of behavior for any institution interested in change. The second is flexible practices such as experimental programs, flexibility in administration and in support programs such as student services and college maintenance. Rigid requirements, grading practices and support services can stifle any faculty growth and defeat any program of instructional change. The third characteristic is good communication among faculty, administration and students. The process of faculty development

carries its own burden of misunderstanding and mistrust. If the general atmosphere of the institution is one of trust, then change has a much better chance of success. The fourth trait is good relationships among individuals and constituent campus groups. A campus climate of readiness in which persons feel secure both professionally and personally is very important for accomplishing any change beyond that generated by individual interest in faculty turnover.[1]

As important as these four characteristics are for the accomplishment of faculty development programs no institution can possibly change unless there is a place to which ideas may be directed. In other words, faculty development programs must have a focus and a structure whereby change can occur orderly; a place and a person or group of persons who are responsible for bringing it about. Traditionally and almost exclusively in American higher education, that structure has been the faculty development committee.

Committees appeared in American colleges during periods of rapid change and helped to meet new needs in times of great expansion. In recent years in most organizations - governmental, industrial and educational - committees have been considered appropriate policy making bodies. The task of the faculty development committee is to stimulate interest in faculty development, assess the needs, design programs to respond to genuine needs within the institution and develop strategies for implementing those changes.

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[1] New Careers and Curriculum Change, Southern Regional Education Board 1968, p. 46-47.

Many alternative ways of structuring for change have been proposed by writers in the field. Some of these have been tried successfully and others have not. Some can stand alone, others should function in combination. Conceivably, a single institution could incorporate all of the change strategies to be developed in this presentation at various times and for various groups within an institution if the implementation of a faculty development program were of paramount importance.

The first strategy for implementing a faculty development or institutional improvement program is to restructure faculty governance. Such a move can clarify channels of communication, simplify the decision making processes remove blocks to accomplishment and give power to formerly disenfranchised individuals. On the other side, any restructuring may force resistance to a new level. If new, more effective roles are not developed by any restructuring, the same old processes and power that blocked change in the institution previously may emerge in new clothing.

Restructuring faculty governance does not necessarily require a total change in the institution but, primarily, changes in the process by which people come to an understanding of how programs are developed and decisions made. Several variations have been proposed for institutions establishing faculty development programs. A review of liberal arts institutions which have completed significant faculty development changes in the last ten years reveals that most were able to initiate their program through ad hoc committees of faculty, students and administrators assigned specific tasks and given a reasonable deadline by which the task would be

[illegible] This kind of committee functioned much as a standing faculty development committee should and yet existed only for a one quarter or a two course in the institution which tried it. The ad hoc committee usually acted as task force reporting either to the faculty as a whole or to a faculty senate or standing committee.

In a variation on the ad hoc theme proposed by Dr. Harold Enarson, many issues concerned about a particular aspect of faculty development participate on a committee at any one time. In practice, faculty development programs decisions would be made in a town meeting fashion but each town meeting would be composed of different persons depending upon who was involved or concerned about the activity proposed. If a decision only a single department from faculty, students and administrators related to that department would participate. If it were an all college decision then the whole college might participate. Dr. Enarson suggests that the weakness of the town government style of faculty management might be overcome by the technology we now possess to produce an "electronic town meeting" which would not require the physical presence of a total college community assembled in a single auditorium.[1]

All approaches are conceivable in that they function for a limited time, usually too short to become a commanding political force, and are primarily constructed to deal with a single problem, issue or question. [illegible] be

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[1] Harold L. Enarson, "Governance and Factions - Who Decides, Who Decides?" The Research Reporter, University of California, Berkeley: The Center for Research and Development in Higher Education, Volume III, No. 3, 1968, p. 1.

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and particularly for improvement of instruction. Either technique gives faculty a chance to observe programs and to interact with faculty from another institution. By visiting another campus, faculty can see a proposed change at their institution in more concrete terms and in a setting which is less threatening. Visits are especially valuable in generating the support of key opinion leaders within an institution.

It is sometimes difficult, however, to relate the impressions and knowledge gained by the persons who visit another campus to the folk back home. It is especially difficult to communicate the excitement they may have felt and the respect they had for those persons they visited. Likewise, bringing a master teacher to the campus may tend to emphasize the shortcomings of the existing faculty rather than challenge them to respond to new ways of teaching and behaving.

A number of institutions have attempted to solve the problem by trying to do both things; urging at least one member of each department to visit another institution once a year to observe particular aspects of faculty development or instructional innovation and report their observations to the department, division or whole faculty. Small colleges, particularly, have a long standing tradition of inviting master teachers to visit the institution and engage in some teaching which is observed by the faculty of that discipline, to observe the faculty in action and comment upon their teaching style, to review the syllabi and teaching materials of the faculty, to conduct a seminar in the discipline for the faculty and students and to engage in social interaction and discourse about the field as a profession.

Such a stimulus can be extremely exciting if not managed by or reported to the administration but only shared with members of a department as part of their own growth plan.

Institutional research studies can be an excellent supporting strategy for implementing faculty deeve'opment. Surveys of faculty perceptions and sense of needs, assessments of problems and evaluation of faculty can determine a data base from which faculty may move in developing growth plans or growth contracts. Research data provide new information or new perspectives on the attitudes and experiences of the faculty in language that they understand and tend to respect.

Some faculty members dislike being evaluated, dislike being forced into the social science "data bank." Some studies of faculty attitudes, perceptions or behaviors are retained by the institutional research office or an administrator and occasionally are used against individuals rather than to support their growth. Nevertheless, no strong faculty development or instructional improvement program can be launched without some firm baseline information and some solid diagnosis of institutional and individual needs. In order for faculty persons to overcome weaknesses and capitalize on ·:rengths they must have some comparative or criteria referenced data about themselves which they are usually not in a position to acquire independently.

Although there is some evidence that consortia have not in the past contributed very much to faculty development, individual and institutional participation in consortia can be an effective strategy for implementing development programs. The Kansas City Regional Council of Higher Education is one

example of a very active consortium focused on faculty growth and instructional improvement. Such an arrangement expands the awareness of faculty about new experiences in alternative settings. It increases the sources of new ideas and expands ways of acting within any one institution. In colleges short of funds the consortium provides a central coordinating staff for self renewal efforts.

Consortia are very easy to ignore. Faculty and administrators who are fearful of the lose of autonomy tend to block consortium-led growth activities. A consortium takes additional time, energy and money away from institutional priorities and tends to be invisible in the interworkings of an institution unless concerted effort is made to the contrary. The extent to which a consortium can be a focus for disseminating information about faculty development, for bringing people together for workshops and seminars, for providing the seed money and reward structure that keeps a development program in action and as a focus for coordination of change within a variety of settings with clearly different goals and objectives has yet to be demonstrated but is certainly potentially a very viable alternative to institutions struggling to manage growth programs alone.

Utilizing social gatherings as a means for implementing change is a strategy long known in the diplomatic corps. When international negotiations break down politicians scream and diplomats have parties. The informal atmosphere and person-to-person contact possible at a social gathering can be the best medium of persuasion available to a faculty. Cocktail parties, travel together, meals eaten together, and even informal gatherings

in a comfortable faculty lounge can be means for improving linkages between individuals or for stimulating interest but most of all for dissolving conflict and increasing concensus.

Some people are irritated by those who continue to talk shop at social gatherings and if groups are polarized before a social gathering the event itself can deteriorate into a gossip session. Some faculty are convinced that social gatherings are contrivances of administrators to placate their objections and the only solution to these problems with social gatherings is the evidence of different behavior in time.

In that same Florida community college study, Dr. Pitcher and I found one institution with a very effective developmental program in freshman biology. The instructor had developed a marvelous combination of laboratory demonstrations, peer teaching, audio tutorial materials and class interaction which was discredited by her traditional colleagues in the biology department. They were so disturbed with her behavior that by the time we visited the institution they had recommended that she not be retained for the next year. Her program was located in a trailer behind the gymnasium, as far away from the rest of the biology faculty as possible. Because the dean and others in the institution were convinced that her program was effective and should be recognized they decided to have a party in her trailer and invited the trustees, the press and the faculty to observe her program in operation, to hear an explanation about it from students who had participated and to see the evidences of success that these students had produced. The party was a success. The press and the trustees were impressed and noted their impressions

publicly so that the rest of the biology faculty was neutralized. Because of the response to her program the instructor was soon invited by faculty in other departments to help them develop courses similar to her biology program. The pressure for movement toward teaching innovation became so great within the institution that the biology faculty began to seek her advice as well. Within two years the whole freshman biology program was functioning in accordance with her initial concept and within three years her trailer was moved from behind the gym and placed adjacent to the biology department and next to the library in the middle of the campus. Thus, a party served as the impetus for changing the instructional behavior of a total institution.

These principles and strategies are not original. They have been tried by numerous institutions throughout the nation and have proven to be successful in producing change within many colleges and universities. Strategies are never any better than the people who utilize them. They can be used ethically or unethically; to manipulate or to enhance freedom and understanding. They are tools to be used by faculty development teams, committees, change agents and individuals who are concerned to improve the quality of instruction and increase understanding of the teaching-learning process. There is no guarantee that the strategies will work in every situation or every time but these or other comparable strategies can increase the probability that any faculty development or instructional improvement program will be successfully implemented.

Conference Program

Monday, April 21, 1975

10:00 a. m.	Conference Registration Opens and Coffee Hour	
11:00 a. m.	Welcome and Opening Remarks	
11:05 a. m.	Introduction of Speaker	Dr. Frank G. Dickey, Provost, University of North Carolina at Charlotte
11:10 a. m.	Opening Presentation	The New Learner and the Need for Diversity in Design Dr. John W. Derry, Vice President for Academic Affairs, Davidson College Davidson, North Carolina
12:00 - 12:30	Discussion	
1:00 p. m.	Buffet Luncheon	
2:00 p. m.	Introduction of Speaker	Dr. William O'Connell, Project Director Southern Regional Educational Board
		Non-Traditional Responses to the Needs of New Learners Dr. Arthur M. Cloonberg, Vice President for Policy Analysis and Evaluation Empire State College, State University of New York
2:45 - 3:15	Discussion	
3:15 p. m.	Coffee Break	
3:45 p. m.	Introduction of Speaker	Dr. Cynthia H. Tyson, Associate Professor of English and Associate Dean of Queens College
		Diagnosis of Student Learning Abilities and Needs Dr. Robert Pinker Professor of Psychology, Baldwin-Wallace College, Director Educational Development Center, Berea, Ohio
4:30 - 5:15	Discussion	
5:45 - 6:30	Social	
6:30 p. m.	Dinner	
7:30 p. m.	Introduction of Speaker	Dr. John W. Derry, Vice President for Academic Affairs, Davidson College Davidson, North Carolina
		Faculty Development Programs: Content and Methods Dr. Harold E. Hodgkinson, Research Educator Center for Research and Development in Higher Education, University of California Berkeley, California
8:45 - 9:15	Discussion	
9:30 p. m.	Informal Social	

Tuesday, April 15, 1975

7:30 a.m.	Breakfast	
8:00 a.m.	Introduction of Speaker	Dr. Joseph L. Wiley, Vice President Queens College, Charlotte, North Carolina
8:05 a.m.	Presentation	International Involvement in Higher Education by Dr. Robert W. Kinloch Assistant Vice Chancellor for International Development, Syracuse University
9:45 - 10:15	Discussion	
10:15 a.m.	Coffee Break	
10:45 a.m.	Introduction of Speaker	Dr. Lenora B. Cohen, Jr., Chairperson Department of Psychology of Special Needs Queens College
10:50 a.m.	Presentation	Assessing Learning Effectiveness by Dr. Richard I. Miller, University Associate for Programs, Atlantic Region of Higher Education, Springfield, Virginia
11:30 - 12:00	Discussion	
12:00 noon	Buffet Luncheon	
1:30 p.m.	Introduction of Speaker	Dr. J. Lee Gibbs, Jr., Associate Vice President for Academic Affairs of the University of North Carolina
1:35 p.m.	Closing Presentation	Planning for Future Strategies for Implementing Models for Institutional Development in Africa by Dr. C. Richard Wells, Associate Professor of Higher Education State University of New York at Buffalo
2:15 - 2:45	Discussion	
2:45 p.m.	Closing and Adjournment	

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Participants

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